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SOME REMARKS ON THE GAUSSIAN DISCRIMINANT.(U)

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on the Gaussian Discriminant

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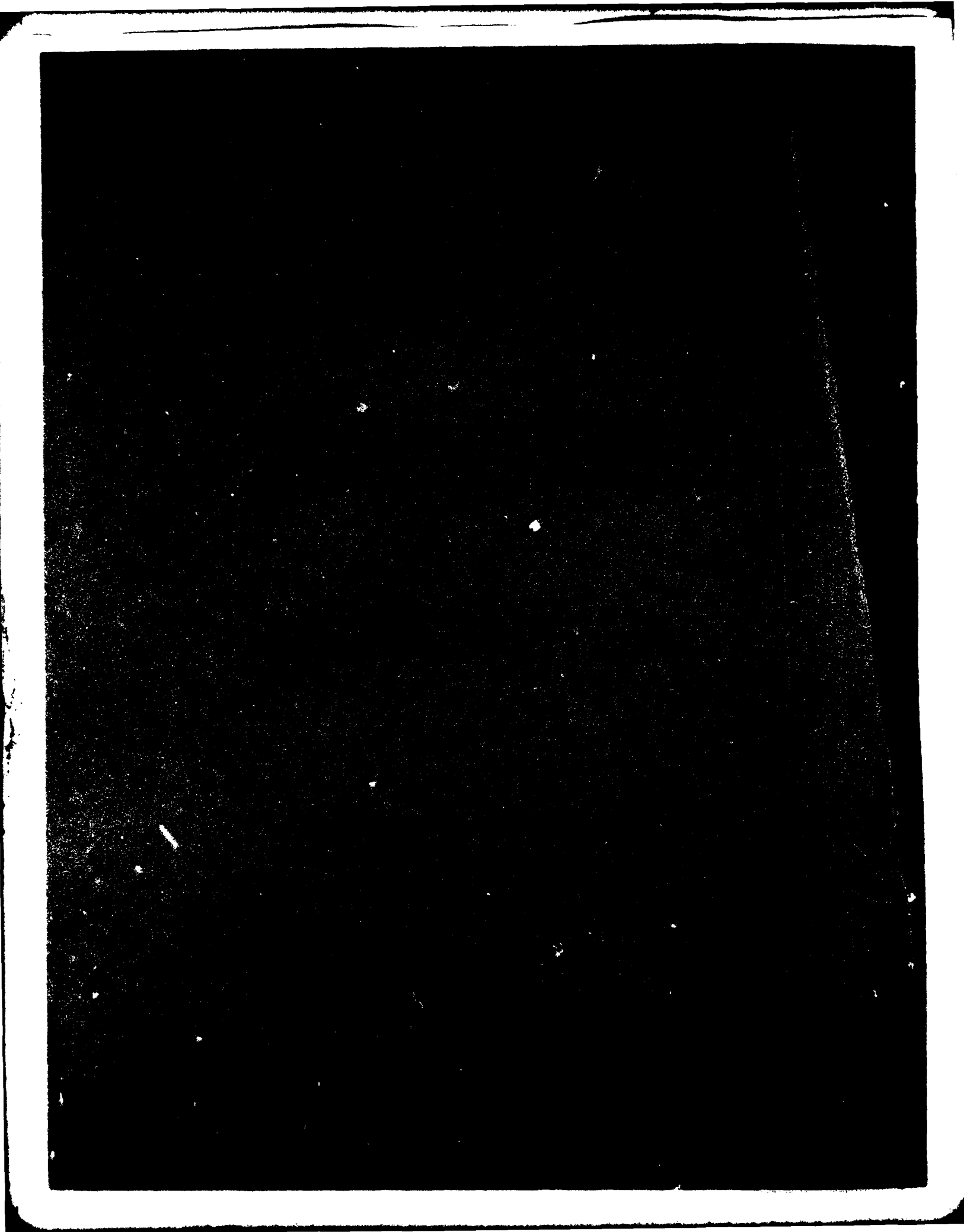
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## SOME REMARKS ON THE GAUSSIAN DISCRIMINANT

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# ABSTRACT

We comment on the performance of the Gaussian discriminant function with (possibly) non-Gaussian underlying distributions. An asymptotic expression for the probability of error for the Gaussian case is given with a formal convergence proof.

## I. INTRODUCTION

For many practical problems in two class pattern recognition, one has (reliable estimates of) the first two moments of each class (mean vectors in  $R^n$  -  $M_1, M_2$  and covariance matrices  $-\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2$ ). Whether or not the underlying distributions are indeed Gaussian, one proceeds to apply the standard Gaussian hypothesis test to classify new data. More precisely, one uses the Gaussian discriminant function  $h(X) = \log \frac{p_2(X)}{p_1(X)}$ , where  $p_1, p_2$  are multivariate normal with the same first two moments as the underlying distributions. Applying an affine transformation to our problem (which has no effect on the discriminant  $h$ ) that simultaneously diagonalizes  $\Sigma_1$  and  $\Sigma_2$  ( $\Sigma_1 \rightarrow I, \Sigma_2 \rightarrow \Lambda, M_2 \rightarrow \vec{0}, M_1 \rightarrow (d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n)$  with  $d_\ell \geq 0$ ), we have

$$(1) \quad h(X) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\ell=1}^n \left[ (x_\ell - d_\ell)^2 - x_\ell^2 / \lambda_\ell + \ln(1/\lambda_\ell) \right]$$

In this correspondence, we first present some elementary inequalities in  $h$ , valid regardless of the class distributions; and then we demonstrate the asymptotic result:

$$(2) \quad P_{\text{error}} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\frac{\sqrt{J}}{2}}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2} dx \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{with } J \text{ the divergence} \\ \text{of } p_1, p_2 \end{array} \right)$$

for the case of equal priors, Gaussian distributions, and all  $\lambda_\ell$  close to 1. We note that the above does not follow from the elementary fact that, for fixed  $n$ ,  $h(X) \rightarrow$  a linear function as all  $\lambda_\ell \rightarrow 1$ ; for all  $\lambda_\ell$  may be close to 1 but the quadratic part of  $h = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\ell=1}^n x_\ell^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lambda_\ell}\right)$  may not approach 0 if  $n$  becomes large.

## II. THE GAUSSIAN DISCRIMINANT FOR ARBITRARY CLASS DISTRIBUTIONS

Calculating the first moments of  $h$  under each hypothesis, we have, regardless of the underlying distributions:

$$(3) \quad E_1(h) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\ell=1}^n \left[ \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lambda_\ell}\right) - \frac{d_\ell^2}{\lambda_\ell} + \ln(1/\lambda_\ell) \right]$$

$$(4) \quad E_2(h) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\ell=1}^n \left[ (\lambda_\ell - 1) + d_\ell^2 + \ln(1/\lambda_\ell) \right]$$

Since  $Z - 1 + \ln(1/Z) \geq 0$  for all  $Z > 0$ , we see immediately that

$$(5) \quad E_2(h) \geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\ell=1}^n d_\ell^2 = \frac{1}{2} D^2.$$

Noting that the maximum value of  $f(Z) = 1 - \frac{1}{Z} - \frac{\gamma^2}{Z} + \ln(1/Z)$  for  $Z > 0$  occurs at  $Z = 1 + \gamma^2$ , we have  $f(Z) \leq 1 - \frac{1}{1 + \gamma^2} + \ln\left(\frac{1}{1 + \gamma^2}\right) - \frac{\gamma^2}{1 + \gamma^2} \leq -\frac{\gamma^2}{1 + \gamma^2}$ . Hence

$$(6) \quad E_1(h) \leq -\frac{1}{2} \sum_1^n d_\ell^2 / (1 + d_\ell^2)$$

which is  $\approx -\frac{1}{2}D^2$  if each component  $d_\ell$  is small. Therefore, in many practical problems  $E_2(h) - E_1(h) \gtrsim D^2 = \sum_1^n d_\ell^2$ .  $D^2$  is then a first order measure of the performance of  $h$ . If  $n$  is large, the  $\lambda_\ell$  are close to one, the  $d_\ell$  are small, and the sequence of random variables  $x_\ell$  is  $k$  dependent for small  $k$ , then we could apply the central limit theorem and obtain estimates of the error probability of  $h$  by calculating  $\text{VAR}_1(h)$  and  $\text{VAR}_2(h)$  from sample data.

### III. ASYMPTOTIC APPROXIMATION TO ERROR PROBABILITY

To justify the claim in I, we state and prove the following theorem:

Theorem : Let a sequence of decision problems, with underlying Gaussian distributions described by means  $D^i$ ,  $\vec{0}$  in  $R^{n_i}$  and covariances  $I$ ,  $\Lambda^i$ , be given. Then, if  $\max_{i \leq \ell \leq n_i} |\lambda_\ell^i - 1| \rightarrow 0$  as  $i \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$\left| P_{\text{error}}^i - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\frac{\sqrt{J^i}}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2} dx \right| \rightarrow 0$$

for the equal prior case.



Proof: We shall apply a central limit theorem for arrays of random variables and use the first two moments of  $h^i$  to obtain an asymptotic expression for the error probability. Calculating the variances under each hypothesis of  $h^i$ , we obtain

$$(7) \quad \text{Var}_1(h^i) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_1^{n_i} \left[ \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lambda_\ell^i}\right)^2 + \frac{2(d_\ell^i)^2}{\lambda_\ell^i} \right]$$

$$(8) \quad \text{Var}_2(h^i) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_1^{n_i} \left[ (\lambda_\ell^i - 1)^2 + 2\lambda_\ell^i (d_\ell^i)^2 \right]$$

Using (3), (4), (7) and (8), and noting by elementary calculus that

$$\frac{(1 - 1/\lambda_\ell^i)^2}{1 - 1/\lambda_\ell^i + \ln(1/\lambda_\ell^i)} \rightarrow \frac{-2(1 - 1/\lambda_\ell^i)}{(\lambda_\ell^i - 1)} \rightarrow -2$$

$$\frac{(\lambda_\ell^i - 1)^2}{\lambda_\ell^i - 1 + \ln(1/\lambda_\ell^i)} \rightarrow \frac{2(\lambda_\ell^i - 1)}{(1 - \lambda_\ell^i)} = +2$$

$$\frac{2(d_\ell^i)^2}{\lambda_\ell^i} \bigg/ \frac{(d_\ell^i)^2}{\lambda_\ell^i} = -2$$

$$\frac{2\lambda_\ell^i (d_\ell^i)^2}{(d_\ell^i)^2} \rightarrow +2,$$

we have

$$\text{Var}_1(h^i) / 2E_1(h^i) \rightarrow -1$$

and  $\text{Var}_2(h^i) / 2E_2(h^i) \rightarrow +1$  .

Futhermore

$$-(d_\ell^i)^2 / \frac{(d_\ell^i)^2}{\lambda_\ell^i} \rightarrow -1$$

and  $\frac{(\lambda_\ell^i - 1) + \ln(1/\lambda_\ell^i)}{(1 - \frac{1}{\lambda_\ell^i}) + \ln(1/\lambda_\ell^i)} \rightarrow \frac{1 - 1/\lambda_\ell^i}{1/(\lambda_\ell^i)^2 - 1/\lambda_\ell^i} \rightarrow -1$

imply that

$$\frac{E_2(h^i)}{E_1(h^i)} \rightarrow -1$$

or equivalently

$$E_2(h^i)/J^i \rightarrow +\frac{1}{2}$$

$$E_1(h^i)/J^i \rightarrow -\frac{1}{2} .$$

We now proceed with the main proof. We may assume (by passing to subsequences if necessary) that both  $J^i$  and  $P_{\text{error}}^i$  are convergent sequences (possibly to  $+\infty$  in the case of  $J^i$ ).

We divide the argument into several cases:

CASE (1)  $J^i \rightarrow 0$

It suffices to show that  $P_{\text{error}}^i \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}$ . This is actually true in general. Consider any 2 positive density functions,  $p, q$ , on some probability space. Then, if for some real  $\delta > 0$ , there is no measurable set whose  $q$  measure is greater than  $\delta$  and such that on this set  $q/p > 1+\delta$ , it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_{\text{error}} &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \int_{q \leq p} q + \int_{q > p} p \right] = \\
 &\frac{1}{2} \left[ \int_{q \leq p} q + \int_{q/p > 1+\delta} p + \int_{1 < q/p < 1+\delta} p \right] \geq \\
 &\frac{1}{2} \left[ \int_{q \leq p} q + \int_{1 < q/p \leq 1+\delta} (p/q) q \right] > \\
 &\frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{1+\delta} \int_{q \leq p} q + \frac{1}{1+\delta} \left( \int_{q/p > 1} q - \int_{q/p > 1+\delta} q \right) \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

$\geq \frac{1-\delta}{2(1+\delta)}$ . Hence if  $P_{\text{error}}^i$  does not approach  $\frac{1}{2}$ , such a  $\delta$  exists. But then the divergence  $J^i(p, q) =$

$$\int_{p \geq q} \ln(p/q) (p-q) + \int_{q > p} \ln(q/p) (q-p)$$

$$\geq \left[ \ln(1+\delta) \right] \left[ \left(1 - \frac{1}{1+\delta}\right) \delta \right] = \frac{\delta^2 \ln(1+\delta)}{1+\delta} > 0 .$$

CASE (2)  $J^i \rightarrow J \neq 0$

Let's rewrite

$$h^i(x) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_1^{n_i} \left[ (x_\ell^i)^2 \left[ 1 - 1/\lambda_\ell^i \right] - 2x_\ell^i d_\ell^i \right] + K_i$$

where we reorder the  $d_\ell^i$  such that

$$d_\ell^i \geq d_{\ell+1}^i .$$

Subcase (a)  $\sup_i \left( \sum_1^{n_i} (d_\ell^i)^2 \right) = +\infty .$

Clearly from (5)  $J = +\infty$ . Consider the (sub-optimal)

discriminants  $g^i = \sum_1^{n_i} x_\ell^i d_\ell^i$ . These are normally distributed

with means,  $\sum_1^{n_i} (d_\ell^i)^2$  and 0, and standard deviations,  $\sqrt{\sum_1^{n_i} (d_\ell^i)^2}$

and  $\sqrt{\sum_1^{n_i} \lambda_\ell^i (d_\ell^i)^2}$ . One can then find arbitrarily large  $i$

for which  $g^i$  has arbitrarily small error probability. Since

$h^i$  is optimal, it has arbitrarily small error for these  $i$

and hence,  $p_{\text{error}}^i \rightarrow 0$ .

Subcase (b)  $\sup_i \left( \sum_1^{n_i} (d_\ell^i)^2 \right) < +\infty.$

We first note that  $\text{Var}(h^i) \rightarrow J \neq 0$  under either hypothesis.

Let us rewrite  $h^i = \frac{1}{2} \sum_1^{\overline{n_i}} \left[ (x_\ell^i)^2 \left[ 1 - 1/\lambda_\ell^i \right] - 2x_\ell^i d_\ell^i \right]$   
 $+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\overline{n_i}+1}^{n_i} \left[ (x_\ell^i)^2 \left[ 1 - 1/\lambda_\ell^i \right] - 2x_\ell^i d_\ell^i \right] + K_i = F_1^i + F_2^i + K_i$  with

$\overline{n_i}$  chosen such that  $\overline{n_i} \rightarrow \infty$  but that  $\sum_1^{\overline{n_i}} |1 - 1/\lambda_\ell^i| \rightarrow 0.$  We

may now apply a central limit theorem, for instance Corollary 4.2 on page 232 of [1]: For any  $\beta > 0$ , either  $F_2^i$  has variance  $< \beta$ , or  $F_2^i$  becomes normal in distribution for large  $i$ . This follows from the central limit theorem for arrays mentioned above, provided the variances of the terms in the summand of  $F_2^i$  become arbitrarily small and this follows if

$\sup_i \left\{ d_\ell^i; \ell > \overline{n_i} \right\} \rightarrow 0.$  But if this were not the case,  $d_{\overline{n_i}+1}^i \geq \gamma > 0$

for infinitely many  $i$  and hence, since  $\overline{n_i} \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\sum_1^{n_i} (d_\ell^i)^2 \geq \overline{n_i} \gamma^2$

contradicts our initial assumption. Further,  $F_1^i$  either has variance  $< \beta$  or approaches a normal random variable in distribution since its linear part is normal and its nonlinear part has variance approaching 0. Since  $\beta$  was arbitrary,  $J > 0$ , and  $F_1^i$  is independent of  $F_2^i$ ;  $h^i$  approaches a normal random variable in distribution and we obtain the asymptotic error

formula (2).

Finally we note that, in (2), we could replace  $J$  by  $8B$  where  $B$  is the Bhattacharyya distance. This follows from the simply verified fact that  $\frac{8B}{J} \rightarrow 1$  as all  $\lambda_\ell \rightarrow 1$ .

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- [1]. L. H. Y. Chen, "Two Central Limit Problems for Dependent Random Variables," Z. Wahrscheinlichkeitstheorie verw. Gebiete 43 , 223-243 (1978).
  
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